END
DATE
FILMED

MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO. AD-A126 852	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS 1900-1982		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Interim
		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
7. AUTHOR(s) Willem A. Hamel, Ph.D.		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS US Army Transportation School Office of Educational Technology (ATSP-OET) Fort Eustis, VA 23604		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Same		12. REPORT DATE April 1983
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 67
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS(If different from Controlling Office) Same		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) Unclassified
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE

16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)

Unlimited

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A
Approved for public release;
Distribution Unlimited

17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, If different from Report)

For further information concerning this report, contact the US Army
Transportation Technical xxx Information and Research Center, AUTOVON:
927-5563, Ft. Eustis, VA 23604

18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

See Block 17 above.

19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

LEADERSHIP   PERSONNEL   FEMALES   NEGROES   PERSONALITY

ROLE MODELS

20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

Three-hundred fifty (350) major leadership studies were obtained, reviewed, and
evaluated. Of these research contributions, 125 were directly referred to for
their conceptual, theoretical, practical, and statistical values. Each
investigation identified specific leadership characteristics considered constant
and dominant for Americans. This review of the research represents the combined
expertise, efforts and professional dedication of numerous behaviorists, each of
whom made definitive contributions to the perceptions, understanding and recog-

DD 1 JAN 73 1473

83 04 11 116

nition of both strong and weak leadership characteristics prevalent in the American culture since 1900.

The major findings of this research review identified six categories consisting of 12 prominent characteristics which have directly reflected national perceptions of the leadership characteristics possessed by successful leaders in all organizational environments. The six categories were found to be: physical, social background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related variables, and social factors. The 12 appendaged leadership characteristics supported by the evaluation of the data indicated that successful leaders are above average in energy and activity, appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement, responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal relations skills.

Some weak leadership characteristics, i.e., those appearing not to be specifically associated with national perceptions of leadership were factors identified as: age, height, weight, adaptability, control, extroversion, strength of conviction, tolerance of stress, persistence, attractiveness, popularity and prestige.

Variations or differences reported in leadership style were interpreted to be affected by national boundaries as opposed to cultural boundaries. This was translated to mean that national boundaries appear to determine the consequence to understanding leadership, whereas cultural boundaries were viewed to impact on values, sentiments, ideals, language, and role models. In addition, attributes associated with black leadership were to be found only in personal values. And, there were no clear boundaries marking the black culture off from the dominant caucasian influence. Lastly, the research review did not discern a clear pattern of trait difference in male-female leadership style. Women, once accepted or legitimized, were found not to behave differently than men in leadership positions.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS 1900-1982

by

WILLEM A. HAMEL, Ph.D.
Personnel Psychologist

83 04 12 116

INFORMATION REGARDING THIS RESEARCH REVIEW MAY BE
OBTAINED FROM THE AUTHOR BY WRITING TO:

DR. WILLEM A. HAMEL
Lynnhaven Parkway at Sidney Court
P. O. Box 64841
Virginia Beach, VA 23464-0841

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLES

ABSTRACT

ABSTRACT

Three-hundred fifty (350) major leadership studies were obtained, reviewed, and evaluated. Of these research contributions, 125 were directly referred to for their conceptual, theoretical, practical, and statistical values. Each investigation identified specific leadership characteristics considered constant and dominant for Americans. This review of the research represents the combined expertise, efforts and professional dedication of numerous behaviorists, each of whom made definitive contributions to the perceptions, understanding and recognition of both strong and weak leadership characteristics prevalent in the American culture since 1900.

The major findings of this research review identified six categories consisting of 12 prominent characteristics which have directly reflected national perceptions of the leadership characteristics possessed by successful leaders in all organizational environments. The six categories were found to be: physical, social background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related variables, and social factors. The 12 appendaged leadership characteristics supported by the evaluation of the data indicated that successful leaders are above average in energy and activity, appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement, responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal relations skills.

Some weak leadership characteristics, i.e., those appearing not

to be specifically associated with national perceptions of leadership were factors identified as: age, height, weight, adaptability, control, extroversion, strength of conviction, tolerance of stress, persistence, attractiveness, popularity and prestige.

Variations or differences reported in leadership style were interpreted to be affected by national boundaries as opposed to cultural boundaries. This was translated to mean that national boundaries appear to determine the consequence to understanding leadership, whereas cultural boundaries were viewed to impact on values, sentiments, ideals, language, and role models. In addition, attributes associated with black leadership were to be found only in personal values. And, there were no clear boundaries marking the black culture off from the dominant caucasian influence. Lastly, the research review did not discern a clear pattern of trait difference in male-female leadership style. Women, once accepted or legitimized, were found not to behave differently than men in leadership positions.

CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP

Since the time of Adam and Eve, man has been fascinated with the concept and study of leadership. It has been exemplified in ancient and classical writings. Machiavelli's guide to effective leadership, The Prince, formed the basis for modern research. It is both a universal phenomenon and an ancient art differing only in the space of time and cultures. Leadership is experienced by all people at all ages and on all strata. It has been the most observed, discussed, and written about phenomenon in the history of mankind. Yet, it is a phenomenon rarely understood. One definition of leadership is that it is an art which directs and moves human resources toward the attainment of accepted goals and objectives. There are, of course, as many interpretations of leadership as there are individuals wrestling with and defining the concept.

As a focus of group process, leadership is viewed as being held by persons having abilities greater than those of the group being led. A leader is seen as being central to the group much like a hub is to the spokes of a wheel. The leader is the focal point, the center of interest, importance and activity. People, as with spokes, are the braces or bars extending between the hub (leader) and the wheel's rim (objective). These people have motives and needs which influence leadership to meet group demands. The leader's mission, in relation to the group, is to organize and direct the abilities and energies of the group toward the attainment of desired objectives. And, although a leader

Since the time of Adam and Eve, man has been fascinated with the concept and study of leadership. It has been exemplified in ancient and classical writings. Machiavelli's guide to effective leadership, The Prince, formed the basis for modern research. It is both a universal phenomenon and an ancient art differing only in the space of time and cultures. Leadership is experienced by all people at all ages and on all strata. It has been the most observed, discussed, and written about phenomenon in the history of mankind. Yet, it is a phenomenon rarely understood. One definition of leadership is that it is an art which directs and moves human resources toward the attainment of accepted goals and objectives. There are, of course, as many interpretations of leadership as there are individuals wrestling with and defining the concept.

As a focus of group process, leadership is viewed as being held by persons having abilities greater than those of the group being led. A leader is seen as being central to the group much like a hub is to the spokes of a wheel. The leader is the focal point, the center of interest, importance and activity. People, as with spokes, are the braces or bars extending between the hub (leader) and the wheel's rim (objective). These people have motives and needs which influence leadership to meet group demands. The leader's mission, in relation to the group, is to organize and direct the abilities and energies of the group toward the attainment of desired objectives. And, although a leader

may have centrality of location within the group; experience
direct linkages, i.e., relationships with subordinates; and be
the hub of communications -- the position of centralization alone
is not considered leadership. The legitimation of leadership roles
is granted by another's perception of a person's right to function
as the leader.

Leadership effects group actions interactions. It emerges
in interpersonal relations at a time when common purposes are id-
entified and compliance is voluntary. Unless conferred or acknowl-
edged by those who will accept subordinate roles, leadership will
not emerge. People accept others in leadership roles because they
want to and for no other reason. For example, imagine a passenger
airline crash landed onto a snow filled mountain top, far from
civilization. The passengers are stranded. The communications
system has been knocked out, and once experienced comfort and
warmth are non-existent. Survival becomes the major objective of
all. Everyone in that downed plane is now equal in status -- without
exception! No one person is in command, not even the pilot. But
someone will emerge as the leader. And that person will be one
who is influenced by the plight and needs of the rest; one who the
rest will recognize and accept as being more capable and knowledge-
able; one whose expertise can get them back to safety. The mani-
festation of this form of leadership is the result of the group
interaction process.

Another form of leadership is _persuasion_. It has been regarded
as a method of convincing others to cooperate, i.e, to voluntarily
expend physical and mental energies toward the achievement of
common objectives (Koontz and O'Donnel 1955). Further, it has been
thought as being management by inspiration (Shenk 1928), and
emotional appeal (Cleeton and Mason 1934) as opposed to intimidation,
force, threat, or coercion.

Leadership also implies _influencing_ behavioral change. This form
of leadership has been called _attempted_ leadership by Hass (1960).
He suggested that a followers actual change of behavior by a leader
is termed _successful_ leadership. Further, if reinforcement theory
is used to change follwership behavior, "this evoked achievement is
effective leadership."

The acculturation or mergence of follower abilities by a
leader is leadership as an instrument of _goal_ achievement.   The needs
of followers are satisfied when they are stimulated or motivated
to economically attain goals.

Other leadership theories are centered around _power relations_,
the degree of force a leader can induce on a follower; _personality_,
interpreted as a one way influence effect; _behavior_, a mixation
of leadership acts designed to organize and activate work situa-
tions; _compliance_, an instrumentality theory for molding followers
to the leader's will; _role differentiation_, a role relationship
to others; and the _initiation and maintenance of structure_, the

iii

process of organizing and maintaining role structure.

This brief introduction to leadership views as presented does not exhaust the myriad of leadership concepts theorized over the centuries. However, they are the most prevalent. They refer only to the concept of leadership and not to the multi-traits, topics or theories of group, institutional, and organizational leadership. Leaders by their very positions and obvious visibility have an ethical obligation of being an example of correct behavior. Proper examples lead followers to correct actions. Therefore, leaders must expect their behavior to exemplify the ethical standards and values of his/her culture. They must possess the characteristics of leadership which sets the tone and esprit de corps. Alone, a leader is nothing. To have a following they must possess those characteristics valued by the members of the culture they are elected or appointed to lead. The conceptions of leadership characteristics are examined fully in the following section.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS
1900-1982
UNITED STATES ARMY TRANSPORTATION CORPS
UNITED STATES ARMY TRANSPORTATION SCHOOL

Dr. Willem A. Hamel, Personnel Psychologist,
Coordinator, DOES-SFD, Office of the Deputy
Assistant Commandant-Educational Technology
Fort Eustis, Virginia 23604

BACKGROUND

America's early Twentieth Century leadership studies inter-
preted and characterized leaders as male persons possessing
established inheritances and unusual wealth. The very nature
of their birth within financially entrenched families was said
to manifest superior qualities and abilities which differentiated
them from the main stream of common folk. The search to identify
specific leadership qualities engulfed the thinking of the next
two generations of researchers, but with limited success. The
1940's produced three major research studies initiated by Bird
(1940), Jenkins (1947), and Stogdill (1948). Bird, understanding
the analyzation of twenty research investigations, discovered
seventy-five leadership characteristics. Of these, only intel-
ligence was significantly correlated with measures of leader
effectiveness. W. O. Jenkins, in a separate review of seventy-
four military studies, determined there was little agreement as
to the abilities characterizing leaders. However, he did con-
clude that leadership was specific to the (military) situation
(Bass 1981). Stogdill in his analysis of 124 trait studies com-
plimented Jenkins' view by reporting that leadership character-
istics appear to change with the situation. Therefore, since
leadership characteristics have been viewed as changing in a
similar fashion as situations, and/or are specific to a situation,

said characteristics experiencing the change process are best identified as personal skills emanating from within the person.

Although pre-1950 leadership reviews interpreted or embraced leadership as being situational in origin, consideration of personal skill predictors and qualities are necessary. The human element has never been monodimensional, it is multidimensional. The behavioral qualities and skills enabling a corporal to gain and maintain control over a squad of soldiers are not the same as those enabling a commissioned officer to gain and maintain a larger command. Yet, certain general qualities -- such as courage, fortitude, and conviction -- appear to characterize both. R. D. Mann's study of small group leadership (1959) supports the conclusion that successful leaders are somewhat more competent than those they lead. Competency, i.e., skills, knowledge or intelligence (IQ) tends to be a major variable contributing to effective leadership.

At this juncture, a comparative enumeration of Stogdill's 1970 survey results based on 163 studies of leadership characteristics is presented. These studies (1948 & 1970) provide positive (confidence at the .05 level) as well as negative (insignificant) relationships.

Statistically, in these studies, a positive or significant relationship is interpreted to mean that either (1) a given

2

characteristic experiences a significant correlation with another measure of leader effectiveness; (2) a leadership sample significantly differs from a sample of followers on the measured characteristic; (3) an effective leadership sample is shown to differ rather significantly from an ineffective leadership sample on the characteristic; or (4) a high-status leadership sample may indicate significant differences on a characteristic measured against a sample of lower-status leaders. For example, military studies have indicated that senior officers possess different leadership characteristics than junior officers.

The discussion following Tables 1-6 is broken down into clusters of individual leadership characteristics emanating from the previously mentioned surveys conducted during 1948 and 1970. These surveys represent the evaluation of major research data since 1900. Additional contributions in leadership research to 1981 are credited to Bernard M. Bass, Professor of Organizational Behavior at the State University of New York, Binghamton. Each table introduces a major leadership characteristic along with related factors of that variable. Columns 1, 2, and 3 are respectively identified as positive (significant), zero or negative, and positive only under the calendar dates 1948 and 1970. The tables allow for a systematic comparison of

3

the leadership characteristics of research to 1948 and 1970.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS

TABLE 1*
Physical Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
| | Positive | Zero or Neg | Positive Only |
	1	2	3
Activity, Energy	5		24
Age	10	8	6
Appearance, Grooming	13	3	4
Height	9	4	
Weight	7	4	

*Source: Tables 1 through 6 are adapted from Stogdill's Handbook
of Leadership, Revised and Expanded Edition by Bernard M. Bass

Activity, Energy: The measure of physical characteristic
activity, energy indicates both positive and positive only find-
ings in the 1948 and 1970 surveys. The 1970 survey (24 findings)
shows a greater concern with this particular factor than it did
in the 1948 survey (5 findings). These findings suggest that
individuals endowed with a greater or higher degree of activity,
energy tend to be considered the most successful leaders.

Age: In looking at the age variable, a complicated relation-
ship over the years is noted. As it stands, it appears that the

4

times, setting and/or the situation might well contribute to the
age in leadership factor. Research conducted by Lehman (1953)
and Cox (1926) reported that great men and women experienced out-
standing successes relatively early in life; special education and
training aside. However, these personages represent a minute per-
centage of the population in general. They also possess creative
talents that are considered more effective in small organizational
environments. Larger organizations, such as the U. S. Army, re-
quire individuals who have attained organizational and administra-
tive knowledge from experience and age. But, as Table 1 indicates,
age in our modern society tends to have a minimal impact on
leadership.

Reviewing this phenomenon back in 1920 Kohs and Irle con-
ducted a longitudinal study of 116 college students electing an
Army career. The results were that correlations between rank
and ratings ranged from .11 to .39. It was reported that the
predictive criteria for success in the Army were estimates of
potential value to the Army and estimates of intelligence. These
estimates were correlated .11 with Army rank. Academic scholar-
ship was not a predictor. Army Research Institute studies (1979)
have shown that careerists experiencing on-going training demon-
strate success in leadership activities throughout their mili-
tary career. The results emanating from studies concerned with

5

physical characteristics indicated a low positive correlation between leadership and such variables as physique, age, and dominance.

Appearance and Grooming: Measures of appearance and grooming showed both positive and negative findings in the 1948 survey; however, evidence indicates that there is a possible relationship between appearance and leadership. Dunkerley's (1940) study stressed that first impressions, neat appearance and good grooming, contributes to the selection of a leader. A correlation of .81 between appearance ratings and leadership status was found by Patridge (1934). And Tryon's (1939) study reported that appearance is closely associated with male rather than female leadership.

Height and Weight: The variables height and weight were not considered an advantage in achieving leadership status as much as they once were. This shifting of values, inclusive of such factors as club memberships, fraternities, etc., is indicative of a changing society that has replaced mid-century standards and values with those a sophisticated, technologically advanced society can be comfortable with.

TABLE 2
Social Background
(Total Number of Findings)

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
| | Positive | Zero or Neg | Positive Only |
	1	2	3
Education	22	5	14
Social Status	15	2	19
Mobility	5		6

Education: Table 2 shows that the acquisition of education
retains its prominent place as one of the major factors in achiev-
ing leadership positions. Since World War II greater emphasis has
been placed on the necessity of becoming formally educated. Now,
as industry and government continue to feel the effects of affirma-
tive action, greater cross-cultural strides in upward mobility
can be expected to increase. This upward climb by emerging
cultures will identify large numbers of submerged leaders who,
because of previously held social, religious, and ethnic prohibi-
tions, were prevented from surfacing.

Social Status: Social status continues to influence, to a
large degree, the acquisition of positions of leadership. However,
values associated with acquired status have changed according to
the accepted values of their times. For example, up to 1934
political leadership (58%) rested in the hands of descendents of

7

professionals, proprietors of major corporations, and those who
held official occupations (Matthews 1954). Whereas, as indi-
cated by the Newcomer (1955) and Scientific American (1965)
studies, a greater portion of post-WWII corporate, military
leadership has had its origins rooted in poorer and middle
income groups.

Mobility: The mobility factor appears to have changed little
over the decades; that is, upward mobility has, to a considerable
degree, retained its posture in that it is seen to depend upon
being at the right place at the right time. Kipnis' (1964) study
reported that job satisfaction increased one's upward mobility
expectations. On the other hand downward mobility (Lindzey and
Kalnins (1958)) has been associated with low work, task, group,
and self-satisfaction.

Bass (1981) has indicated that "...the most significant con-
clusions to be drawn from surveys of social background factors
are that (1) high socioeconomic status is an advantage in attain-
ing leadership status; (2) leaders who rise to high level posi-
tions at present tend to come from lower socioeconomic strata
of society than they did a half century ago; and (3) they tend
to be better educated now than formerly."

TABLE 3
Intelligence and Ability
(Total Number of Findings)

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive Only 3
Intelligence	23	10	25
Fluency of Speech	13		15
Knowledge	11		12
Judgment, Decisiveness	9		6

Intelligence: Of the studies conducted prior to 1948 (Table 3), seventeen made reference to a rather sizeable overlapping of intelligence test scores. These findings indicated that superior intelligence could not be considered an absolute requirement for leadership. But, the trend of the data did show that the status of leadership was specifically related to superiority in intelligence. Further, the 1970 survey, reviewing twenty-five research investigations, clearly indicated positive relations existing between ability, leadership, and intelligence.

Hollingworth (1926) reported that leaders are likely to be more intelligent than those they lead. His investigations of IQ indicated that in groups averaging an IQ of 100, the leader falls in the 115-130 IQ range. In addition, persons with higher IQ's, namely 160, have greater difficulty leading a group whose average IQ is 100. A leader having an IQ of 160 increases the probability that

9

his/her communication (verbal proficiency) will not be compre-
hended with a lower achieving group. But, a person of such
high calibre is more likely to experience success leading higher
achieving groups averaging an IQ of 130 or better.

Also, it appears from these earlier studies that a neces-
sary condition for group leadership is similarity in interests,
goals, motives, and patterns of behavior. Research indicates
that when these variables compliment each other, leadership
experiences success. Therefore, in the leadership selection
process, a candidates' IQ score should be considered prior to
actual selection. To experience cost effective, productive
leadership, the potential leader's IQ score would be slightly
above the mean score of the group s/he is to lead. McCuen
(1929) reported that followers prefer to be lead by a person of
average intelligence; more specifically, one that is not too far
detached from the average intelligence of their immediate group.

Stogdill (1948) noted that extreme discrepancies of intelli-
gence between leaders and followers work against the exercise.
Supporting that finding, and those of Hollingworth (1926) and
McCuen (1929), Ghiselli (1963) discovered that persons attaining
both high and low IQ scores are less likely to acquire success
in leadership (management) roles than those with IQ scores
at an intermediate level.

10

Fluency of Speech: In addition to intelligence, leaders are
further identified by their fluency of speech (Harville 1969),
knowledge (Moore and Smith 1953), and superior judgment
(Sarachek 1968). Table 3 indicates that the 1970 survey of 163
studies support those reviewed in the 1948 survey. The results
indicated that the development of communications skills -- oral
and written -- contribute largely to leadership success.

Knowledge: This factor, an acquisition of training, skills
development and application, and experience, continues to be
reported in all major research studies as a major factor in
leadership, especially effective decision making.

TABLE 4
Personality
(Total Number of Findings)

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive Only 3
Self-Confidence	17		28
Personal Integrity, Ethical Conduct	6		9
Originality, Crea- tivity	7		13

Personality: The personality variables self-confidence, personal
integrity and originality, creativity (Table 4) express positive

11

findings in both the 1948 and 1970 leadership surveys. The noted
differences between each of these major research reviews are that
the studies reported in the 1970 survey were conducted among
actual "working," that is, "real world" populations. Whereas,
the previous survey (1948) tended to be reviews of research in-
vestigations conducted among school children, college students,
club members and homogeneous groupings. The conclusion from
Table 4 is that personality characteristics differentiated,
to an impressionable degree, leaders from followers, the success-
ful from the unsuccessful, and the high level achievers from the
lower level. These data suggest that personality characteris-
tics independently determine leadership effects, i.e., different
levels of leadership can be identified by the degree said
characteristics are exhibited.

Self-Confidence: Researchers (Buttgereit 1932, Moore 1932,
and Zeleny 1939) uncovering data on the relationship of self-
confidence to leadership reported in their findings that leaders
rate much higher than their subordinates on this variable.
Self-esteem, i.e., esteem of one's own special talents, including
the ability to measure them correctly, received an equally high
rating. Both of these variables manifested correlation co-
efficients of .12-.59 indicating that leaders exceed the ratings

12

of their followers. Cox (1926) found that exceptional military leaders and statesmen are characterized by their eagerness and quest for notoriety. Further, these findings infer that leaders are persons who are not handicapped by an excessive degree of modesty (Bass 1981).

Integrity: Integrity of character is a leadership factor long associated with a sound, uncompromising adherence to an accepted code of moral values. Cox's (1926) and Carlson's (1942) studies indicated that this variable experiences positive associations with eminent leadership in maturity. Both personal integrity and ethical conduct are qualities which have experienced positive findings in the 1948 and 1970 surveys (Table 4). Successful leaders in industrial and military environments have, for over a century, placed a significantly high value on a strong social and moral code of ethical behavior.

Originality, Creativity: Studies central to the leadership characteristics originality and creativity are rather sparse; however, correlation coefficients gleaned from the 1948 leadership survey are impressive. Research conducted by Bellingrath (1930), Drake (1944), Flemming (1935), and Webb (1915) reported correlation coefficients ranging from .38 to .70. These leadership qualities have maintained a position second only to the once vogue popularity variable.

13

<div align="center">

TABLE 4a
Personality
(Total Number of Findings)

</div>

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
| | Positive | Zero or Neg | Positive Only |
	1	2	3
Adaptability	10		
Adjustment, Normality			11
Alertness	6		4
Aggressiveness, Assertiveness			12
Alertness	6		4
Ascendance, Dominance	11	6	31
Emotional Balance, Control	11	8	14
Enthusiasm			3
Extroversion	5	6	1
Independence, Non-conformity			13
Objectivity, Tough-Mindedness			7
Resourcefulness			7
Strength of Conviction	7		
Tolerance of Stress			9

The personality characteristics listed in Table 4a are those which appeared most often in the 1948 and 1970 surveys. These factors or characteristics are considered weak leadership traits as compared to those discussed in Table 4. The variables ascendance, emotional balance, and extroversion showed both positive and negative findings suggesting major differences in the personality found in one type of leader or another. The remaining factors did not, unfortunately, provide a clear picture

<div align="center">14</div>

of positive personality traits sufficient enough to be con-

sidered major leadership indicators.

TABLE 5
Task-Related Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

| | 1948 | | 1970 |
| | Positive | Zero or Neg | Positive Only |
	1	2	3
Achievement Drive, Desire to Excel	7		21
Responsibility	12		17

Achievement: Rubenowitz (1962) and Nelson (1963) compli-

mented the findings of existing studies indicating that leaders

exhibit higher degrees of task orientation than followers. An

item with an overall correlation with every leadership study is

achievement, i.e., the desire to excel. Data supports the view

that successful leaders are characterized by a high need for achieve-

ment (n.Ach). Leaders, to attain positive results from set objec-

tives, must provide structure to subordinates; because subordinates

will unquestionably seek clarification of the task's path to its

goal. Bass (1960) reported that task orientation was seen as a

characteristic of persons who in social settings "will (try) hardest

to help obtain the group's goal, solve its problems, overcome

barriers preventing the successful completion of the group's tasks, and persist at ... assignments." Further, projective measures (McClelland 1966, 1969; and McClelland and Winter 1969) supported the major premise that a high n.Ach is an important value for leaders.

Although an abundance of research evidence indicates that leaders achieve higher than average scholarship than followers, and they are more intelligent than those they lead, a very interesting phenomenon remains in that an extraordinary number of individuals of superior intelligence and accomplishment do not occupy positions of leadership. The bulk of the correlation coefficients gleaned from research indicated that factors associated with leadership status are multicomplex. For example, Blass (1954) found, in reviewing the effects of esteem and competence, that individuals rated most competent by superordinates received increased personal contacts from others, but interacted socially less than the least competent. Bass (1960) discovered that people are more likely to interact with those like themselves and those they value -- and only when mutual esteem is rewarding will interaction increase. High frequencies of interaction, according to Klaus and Bass (1981) correlate with satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, but not with subordinates' judgements of a leader's trustworthiness or ability to inform.

16

Research, in general, indicates that more competent individuals tend to not only interact with those of equal competence but limit, to the point of exclusion, interactions with those who are less competent. Where then, do those of superior intelligence and accomplishment fit in? Are they the magnets to whom the less competent are drawn in their search for problem solutions? Are they the true leaders, the guiding lights active behind the scenes? Or, are they simply knowledge resources to be drawn upon and used at the will and whim of power structures? Do the most competent view leadership differently? Are they outside the main stream?

Evidence has shown (Stogdill 1948, 1951, 1968) that to be a successful leader, the leader should not be too far removed, intellectually, from those s/he leads. Since that proves to be the case, those with superior intelligence, knowledge, scholarship, and accomplishment should be found closest to the pinnacle (flagpole) of the hierarchy -- or at least function at the upper levels of their stratum. It is from these strata that they provide solutions to the less knowledgeable or competent; they are the leadership magnets to whom all eyes look up. Their knowledge is a marketable resource, exchanged for rather lucrative benefits. Their style of leadership is all encompassing. For them, leadership takes on a global perspective. They

17

are the main stream, the guiding force who directs those who voluntarily or involuntarily carry out required tasks. In the final analysis, it is safe to say, the most competent influences and fashions the direction of all organizations with persistence, whether they be social, economic, military or political. The most successful leaders are to be found in the most respected, successful organizations.

Knowledge: Other factors associated with achievement are knowledge and scholarship. The results of knowledge studies indicated that individuals chosen as leaders are those who know how to get things done. Said persons are differentiated from followers by their intensity of application and industry. Bass (1981), in his review of "The Leader as a Person" concluded that abilities ascribed to leaders were intelligence and practical knowledge relative to the position or situation for which they were chosen.

Scholarship: Scholarship was mentioned (page 5) as a leadership characteristic not fully predictive of success in a military career. This statement was made on the basis of the magnitude of correlation coefficients gleaned from pre-1948 research conducted in primarily non-adult educational environments, and data acquired from non-published military leadership studies. Although the results of these research activities

18

indicated that scholarship variables accounted for only a fraction

of the total complex of factors associated with leadership status

(Bass 1981), the entertainment of this premise by comtemporary

researchers is viewed as unreliable and totally unfounded. Re-

search conducted within and outside military environments over

the past thirty years has provided factual evidence which views

the attainment of better than average scholarship as a contribut-

ing characteristic of leadership (Andrews 1955; Margiotta 1976;

Wherry 1950; Wherry and Olivero 1971; and Willmorth, et. al. 1957).

Margiotta (1976) indicated that better than average scholarship

is an imperative for success in the highly sophisticated, tech-

nologically advanced armed forces of the United States.

Responsibility: Factors associated with the characteris-

tic responsibility are dependability, initiative, persistence,

aggressiveness, and self-confidence. Partridge (1934) reported

a correlation of .87 between leadership and dependability. The

results represent higher ratings for leaders over followers.

Bass (1981) believed responsibility to be more highly related

to amount of education than to age or time in position, i.e.,

time in grade. In addition, superordinate responsibility

is said to influence subordinate performance. However,

increased leader responsibility appears to contribute to

lowered subordinate job satisfaction and performance,

especially when leader authority impacts on the followers'
expectations. Research cautions that responsibility needs to be
comprehended within the context of the total organizational
environment in which a leader is functioning.

TABLE 6
Social Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive	Zero or Neg	Positive Only
	1	2	3
Administrative Ability			16
(Project Execution)			
Sociability, Inter-	14		35
personal Skills			

Sociability, Interpersonal Skills: Data gathered from research
investigating the social characteristics of leadership (Bass 1981)
indicated that leaders are active participants in varied activi-
ties. They are regarded as leaders because of their skill in
interpersonal relations. Followers comply to their style volun-
traily, not because they are forced to (Merton 1969). The fre-
quency of a leader's positive interaction and group participation,
according to Homans (1950), contribute to increased follower-
ship, sentiments, and mutual liking. Faquier and Gilchrist (1942)
and Newcomb (1942) assigned higher ratings in cooperativeness

20

to leaders than followers. And, correlations reported by both Webb (1915) .69, and Cox (1926) .62 showed that exceptional leaders rate "outstandingly high in sense of corporate spirit." Further, Raven and Eachus (1963) discovered that groups with cooperative members were more likely to develop leaders than groups with competitive members. In historical retrospect, the Raven and Eachus (1963) findings correlate with ancient metaphysical philosophies which deplored the wasting of physical and mental energies on competitive tasks. The philosophies of Zen stressed that energy must be properly harnessed to flow in cooperative association with the natural order of the continuous movement of the universe -- universe being defined as "all there is"!

Popularity: Additional factors in association with social characteristics are popularity, loyalty, and group cohesiveness. Diversified studies have shown that the variable popularity as being closely related to leadership status, but popularity alone cannot be regarded as synonomous with leadership (Nutting 1923). Findings by Riedsel (1974) have stressed that popularity distorts sociometric leadership studies. Being liked, that is, popular, appears to be of some importance in leisure activities; but in professional environments, wherever morally acceptable tasks are to be performed, competence and value remain the most important influence (Smith 1963).

Loyalty: The loyalty factor has been found to have a decided impact on every organizational situation and human resource relationship. Research stresses that loyalty considerations are hinged to benefits, bargaining power, rewards and equitable agreements (Thibaut and Faucheux 1965) existing between people and the insitutions in which they are employed. Further, loyalty is not a onesided affair. Leaders, to be respected and receive the loyalty of subordinates, must be unquestionably aboveboard and loyal to them. Subordinate disassociation and withdrawal of loyalty manifests when action undertaken by superordinates are viewed as undermining their best interests. Evan and Zeldich (1961) reported that differences arising from disloyalty seriously affects productivity. Group members engage and exhibit covert disobedience and resistance to least loyal leaders than to trustworthy, genuinely honest leaders. This effect has been attributed to subordinate attitudes regarding personnel activities of appointed leaders. Member loyalty to leadership and organizations is strengthened only by overt positive participation (Patchen 1970).

Group Cohesiveness: Individuals welcomed and accepted into group settings experience positive relations with group members in contrast to those who are envied, avoided, resented and/or socially tolerated (Dittes 1959). A group member's willingness

22

to expend effort for the benefit of the group affects directly the leadership process. Leaders unable to gain group members' commitment experience reduced group effectiveness and mission performance (Gustafson 1968). A necessary ingredient affecting the success of leaders is the motivational level of the group/ unit membership (Bass, Flint, and Pryer 1957). Acceptance of the group leader is linked (Bass 1981) to a member's identification with the in-group. Appointed leaders, and persons who take over leadership roles by virtue of time-in-grade status (tenure), are least likely to succeed in gaining full commitment from group members. Such leaders are unable to relate favorably, experience hostility, and create problems more rapidly than selected / accepted leadership (Raven and Eachus 1963). Stogdill (1972) reported that group cohesiveness was predicated on the degrees of positive reinforcement each group member provides to individual and group expectations about the value of maintaining the group as a functional unit.

Administrative Ability (Project Execution): Lastly, administrative ability appears in the 1970 list only (Table 6). Research data concerned with administrative ability makes strong references to a leader's intellectual capacity to project manage. Most of the studies concerned with administrative effectiveness of leaders have centered on competence and mission results.

23

E. Williams (1968) reported effective administrators as those who have been rated signifincatly higher in the areas of responsibility, human relations, trustworthiness, decision making and problem solving. Scientific management theory (Taylor 1912) maintained that the major functions of leadership were planning, organizing, activating, and controlling performance; that is, getting work done with and through others. Although this theory was the rationalized process of pre-technological-sophisticated-formal-organizations, said organizations naively defined, codified and taught management (administration) as if it were a military science (Hamel 1983). This attempt at codification unfortunately ignored the human element which not only makes up organizations, but provides the energy, the matrix, that keeps the structure together. To be an effective administrator or project manager one must learn not only to relate the needs and motives of the organization to its personnel, but to comprehend that: (1) the will of the investor fuels and strengthens the organization's mission; (2) the will of the consumer determines the degree of the demand for services; and (3) personnel, i.e., employees invest their energy, knowledge, skills, time, and yes, even their lives, in support of legitimate organizations.

In the final analysis, investment in organizations is made by people; demand for service is made by people; and support of

24

a humanistic idea, whether it be an organization, fraternity, or mission, is granted solely by the WILL of the human element -- people. Leaders who think otherwise need only to experience the disintegration of organizational structure when any cne or all investors, consumers, and/or employees withdraw support.

Administration is an extremely sensitive function. Few leaders make the grade. Those who do embrace the human element.

SUMMARY

In summary, the clusters of characteristics identified in Tables 1-6 specifically differentiated leaders from followers, effective from ineffective leaders, and executive-echelon leadership from first line supervision. Twentieth Century leadership research indicated that different strata of leaders and followers can be described in terms of the extent to which they exhibit some of these characteristics (Bass 1981). Also, the element of chance plays a part in the acquisition of leader-ship positions. Upward mobility, for example, to a considerable degree, is determined by being at the right place at the right time. And finally, conceptions of leadership characteristics are culturally determined (see Appendix A for elucidation).

Conclusions supported by the evidence gathered from the numerous studies conducted since 1900 indicated that a leader is above average in energy (activity), appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of

speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement,
responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal
relations skills. In many instances, each of these qualities
are determined by situational demands. Leaders, as has been
noted, exceed the average follower in their group in sociability,
popularity, verbal facility, insight, self-confidence, and
knowing how to accomplish a mission.

APPENDIX A

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

Early research and reviews dealing with comparative management and leadership indicated that variations in approaches are directly associated with a particular cultural background (Triandis 1980). The results did not, however, discount global tendencies germane to multicultural, multinational variations. Nevertheless, more often than not, variations or differences reported in leadership style, inclusive of effective intelligence, emotional stability, and interpersonal competence, were interpreted to be affected by national boundaries as opposed to cultural boundaries. What this means is national boundaries determine, on the one hand, the consequence to understanding leadership and management, and cultural boundaries, on the other hand, impact on values, sentiments, ideals, language, and role models (Bass 1981). For example, Weissenberg (1979) found that there was a variance in cultural units; that is, German-speaking managers (leaders) in one nation hold life goal values that are different from those of German-speaking managers in other countries. The study indicated that German-speaking Swiss place importance on wealth and duty: West Germans stress selbständigkeit (independence), prestige and leadership; and German-speaking Austrians entertain a preference for service (dienst). Observations from other sources (Mant 1977) found that German-Americans put emphasis on scholarship, competency, and the spirit of entrepreneurship—entrepreneurship being the highest form of leadership and self-sufficiency.

27

WITHIN-CULTURE DIFFERENCES

Heller (1969) noted that North Americans (Canadians) and their
British contemporaries equate authority to speedy decision making;
whereas, Anglo-Americans tend to gather data prior to formulating
and making a decision. Further, leaders in military environments
tended to be either boyishly emotional when evolved with decision
making activities or mechanistic followers of superordinate
mandates (McCann 1964). Within the military culture wide differences
in leader behavior exists. Chowdhrv and Pal (1960) indicated the
foolhardiness to focus on the overall pattern of values among
people within a nation (culture) at the expense of overlooking
the differences found between minority groups (subcultures) within
that nation. The study suggests that military organizations, although
constitutionally connected to a country nationalistically, actually
reflect contrary practices of leadership and management other than
those practiced by the mainstream culture. Military organizations
embrace the concept of separate cultural boundaries within the
national boundaries of the nations they defend. This is not a
unique phenomenon. Similar practices occur in industrial, religious,
and educational settings as well. Normally, initiates go through a
subtle resocialization process designed by the organization for
the purpose of stressing specific leadership-management values
and standards of behavior. The new organizational arrival tends to
accept (on the surface) diverse forms of leadership-management

28

only to the degree that their personal and professional needs and
motives are met.

LEADERSHIP IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

This paper has essentially provided a review of those leader-
ship characteristics which are predominantly American. In many ways,
similar patterns appear to be present in the cultures of other
nations. We can justifiably expect this to be so mainly because
the United States is a harbour comprised of multi-world-cultures.
The profound spirit of Americanism places a cultural emphasis
on individualism, action, pragmatism and equalitarianism --
characteristics brought into this nation by settlers and immigrants
who were denied these God-given rights under totalilarian and
similarly oppressive governments. Although a discussion of cross-
country confusions goes beyond the intent and scope of this paper,
consideration of the unique leadership approaches within given
countries can be briefly addressed. For example, Wilkinson (1964)
noted that Confucian and Victorian England valued good manners,
form, and classical training; holders of property and acquisition
of formal education assured leadership roles in both France and
Belgium (Bass 1981). The key to leadership success in Japan is
graduation from a prestigious university (Hamel 1983); party
officials, the military, and scientists are the upper classes
in the Soviet Union (Granick 1962); Latin American family affilia-
tions are imperative to emergence as a leader (Lauderback 1963);

29

Mexico is lead by self-made millionaires, industrial elite, and
middle-class bureaucrats (Bass 1981); and lastly. Germany since 1945,
influenced by American democratic ideals, has filled positions of
leadership from the energetic working class as opposed to the pre-
1945 military subculture and landed aristocracy (Granick 1962).
Each of these nations, and others throughout the globe, possess
attitudes and traits of consequence of leadership associated with
both culture and country. Dimensions such as traditionalism vs.
modernity, particularism vs. universalism, pragamatism vs. idealism,
loyalty, social skills, interpersonal communications, integrity,
intelligence, etc., are but a few of the multidimensional variables
considered appropriate by these nations for leadership success.

APPENDIX B

BLACK CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

Black Americans form a distinct, unique, and major subculture matrixed to the dominant white society in ways sensitive to the values and standards of the total American philosophy (Liebow 1967). There are no clear boundaries marking the black culture off from the dominant caucasian influence. Its cultural patterns are the same as those of the white culture (Baldwin, et.al. 1966), and, in many ways, black middle-class standards of behavior exceed national cultural standards (Pinkney 1969). Farley and Hermalin (1971) reported that the majority of black families experience stable family life with sound husband-wife-children relationships.

Leadership researched by Fichter (1966) and Bayer and Boruch (1969) indicated that attributes associated with black leadership were found only in personal values. That is, in addition to assigning importance to achieving independence (autonomy), self-fulfillment, close personal affiliations, and positions of responsibility (Vinson and Mitchell 1975), black Americans place a high value on being helpful to others. Individual and cultural group energies are directed toward assisting and contributing to society as a whole. Black Americans view themselves as Americans in equally the same way as all Americans do -- whether they be descendants of first settlers, naturalized citizens or recent immigrants. Contrary to uninformed opinion, little difference has been found in the values held by either black or white leaders and managers (Watson and Barone 1976).

31

In Rosen's and Jerdee's (1977) study, the performance of blacks and whites as leaders was found to be dependent on the supervised group's ethnic composition. A discovery by Shull and Anthony (1978) indicated that although there was no significant difference in the manner each cultural group addressed individual and group conflict situations and disciplinary problems, the white culture was shown to be more willing to accept harsh organizational punishment for rule violations than blacks of the same peer groupings. Further, the race of each, according to Sattler (1970), was said to affect interactions and interpersonal communications between black and white leaders and their subordinates. These results indicated that subordinates of either racial culture, specifically lower class subordinates, experience greater sensitivity to being directed by a leader other than one of their particular culture. However, among the educated and upper classes of either culture the evidence supported positive increases in professional and social inter-actions and interpersonal communications.

APPENDIX C

WOMEN AND LEADERSHIP

Society at any given time, past, present, and future will
affect status and sex-role stereotyping. Historically, leadership
opportunities for women were limited to subordinate female environ-
ments except where their position was legitimized by lack of male
heirs, marriage or inheritance (Shein 1975). Stereotypic handicaps
created by men, in the best interest of men, curbed female motiva-
tion and limited their upward mobility. This senseless stereotyping
by sophomoric psychologists, behaviorists and medical science blunder-
ers falsely conditioned both male and female into unnecessary role
playing automatons. Women were counseled into subservient
auxiliary and service roles. They performed as nurses, secretaries
or administrative assistants; were denied entry into medical schools
and law: and obstructed from achieving managerial positions. The
perpetuation of selfish societal attitudes against women inade-
quately provided successful role models for future generations.
And today, in the latter quarter of the Twentieth Century, both
men and women, despite the advancement of equal employment opportunity
laws, are socially and professionally separate. Unfortunately, many
men have been wrongly socialized and programmed into believing that
women are not "of-men," that they lack career direction, are overly
emotional, undependable. lacking in leadership potential. and are
somehow spiritually and intellectually different.

Any and all bahavioral traits of both men and women can be said
to be socially contrlled. Contrary to the male-female socialization

process research has been unsuccessful in discerning a clear

pattern of trait difference in male-female leadership style.

In general. women lean more toward a human relations oriented

style of leadership: whereas, men. especially military and scientific

management exponents, have shown preference toward task behavior.

Each of these differences in leadership orientation cannot be

attributed to sex alone. but rather attitudinal and behavioral per-

ceptions. A concern for people is an attitudinal dimension directly

related to one's values. This attitude or perception of people

has a high correlation with productivity. Task orientation is, in

essence. a form of situational leadership which contributes to one's

understanding of the kinds of behaviors which may effectively impact

on environmental changes. In the final analysis, and in spite of

the various attributes once associated with male-female leadership

differences, women, once accepted or legitimized as a leader.

do not behave differently than men (Osborn and Vicars 1976).

34 ·

APPENDIX D

MEASUREMENT AND SCORING INSTRUMENTS
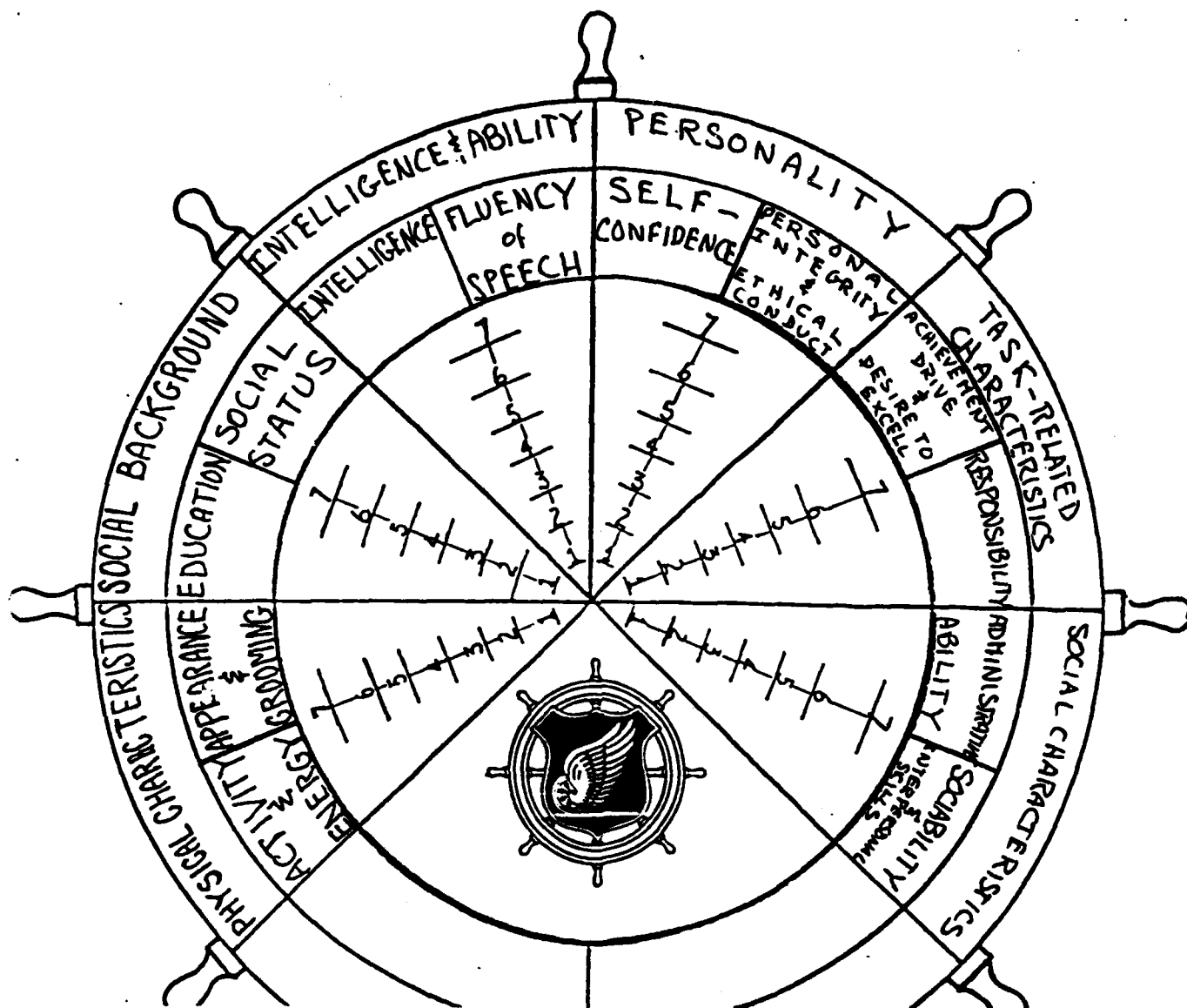
The purpose of this Leadership Appraisal Wheel is to measure leadership characteristics. Results are compared and used with other evaluation factors. It is important that you are completely honest in marking your selection and that you base your responses on your true status as much as possible.

Review and rate each factor on a scale of 1 to 7. Decide the degree that each has to you. If a factor is strongly descriptive, check (✔) number space 6 or 7. If a factor is moderately descriptive, check (✔) number space 3, 4 or 5. For factors that are least descriptive, check (✔) number space 1 or 2. Mark your check (✔) on that side of the scale ✔3 directly under the factor you are measuring.

Make your decisions quickly as you consider your current level of proficiency on each factor as opposed to that of 3, 5, 10 or 20 years ago.. Base your selection entirely on how you truthfully see yourself.
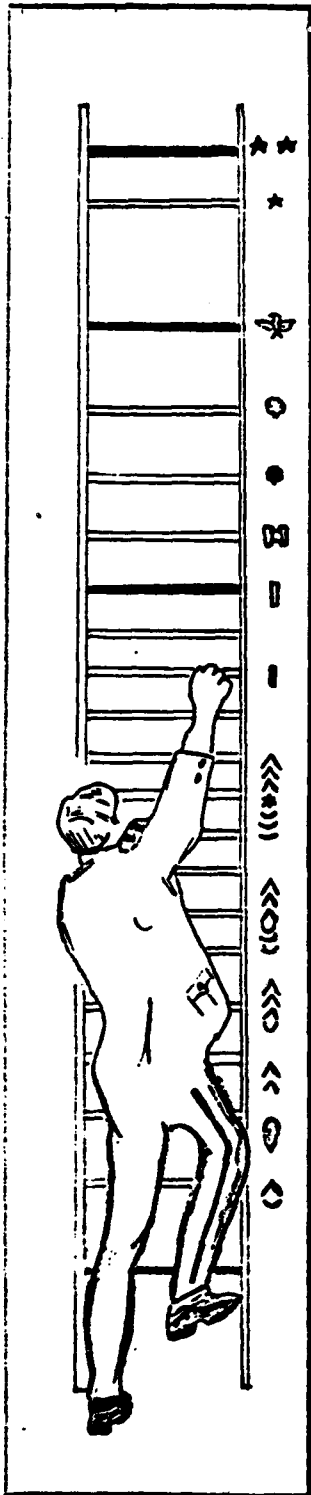
Directions: Locate the numbers you have rated on the Leadership Appraisal Wheel. Transfer these ratings to the respective boxes on this page. Add the 12 factor ratings and enter the sum in the TOTAL RATE box. Divide this rating by 12 in the indicated box and place the score in the adjacent box.

When you have calculated the score turn to the Leadership Thermometer and draw an arrow pointing toward the numbered box which corresponds to the score you have attained.

RATE   PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

	ACTIVITY AND ENERGY
	APPEARANCE AND GROOMING

RATE   SOCIAL BACKGROUND

	EDUCATION
	SOCIAL STATUS

RATE   INTELLIGENCE AND ABILITY

	INTELLIGENCE
	FLUENCY OF SPEECH

RATE   PERSONALITY

	SELF-CONFIDENCE
	PERSONAL INTEGRITY & ETHICAL CONDUCT

RATE   TASK-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS

	ACHIEVEMENT, DRIVE AND DESIRE TO EXCELL
	RESPONSIBILITY

RATE   SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

	ADMINISTRATIVE ABILITY
	SOCIABILITY & INTERPERSONAL SKILLS
	TOTAL RATE ÷ 12 = Leadership Score

12 [   ] ÷ [   ] Score
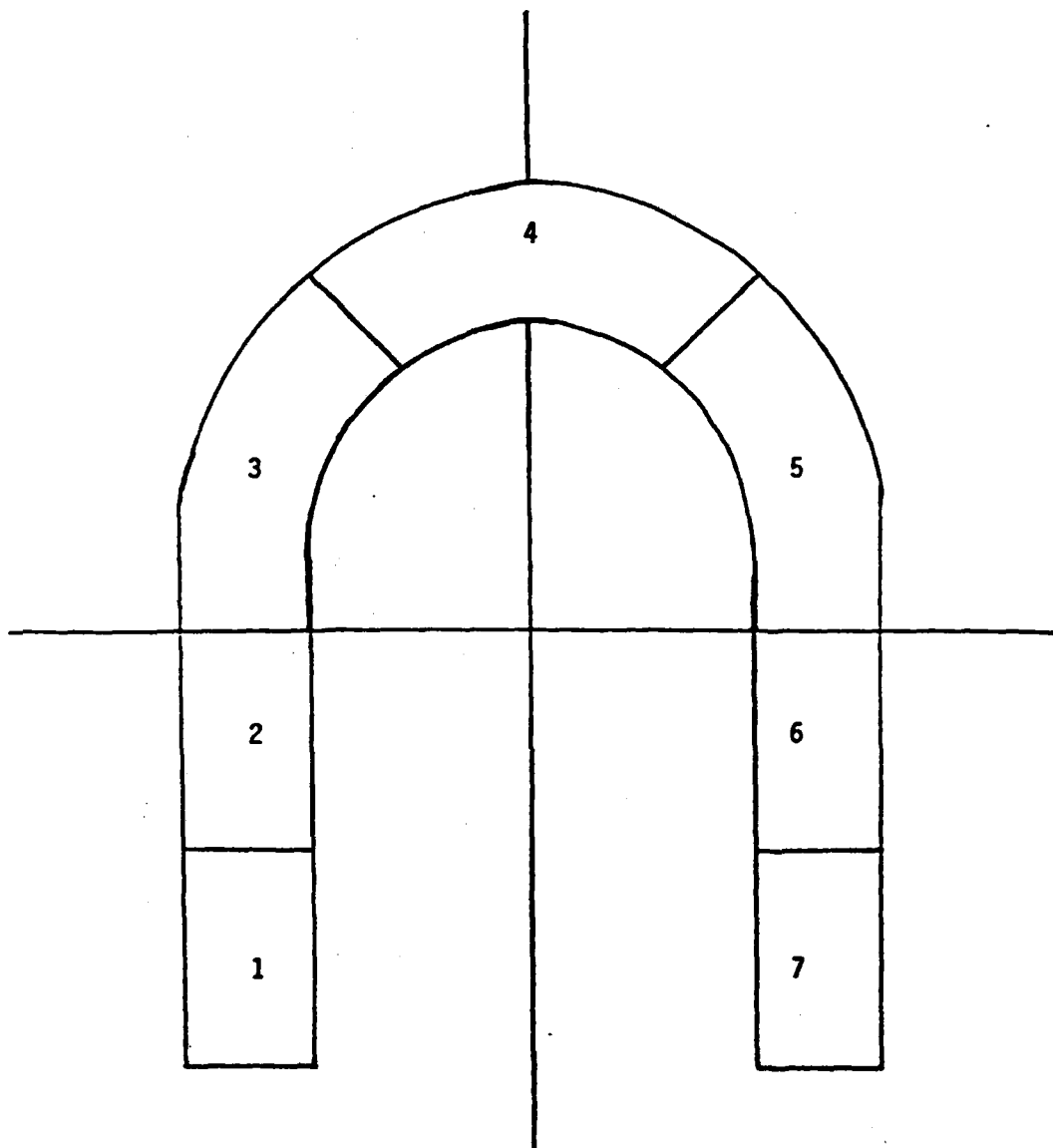
The U. S. Army has been heard to say they want people with as much
leadership potential as possible. But that could be a person who is
highly likely to take a discharge to form his/her own corporation.
What the army really means is they want people with enough leadership
ability to make a successful career.

The inverted U-shaped Leadership Thermometer places all the generally
accepted army leadership characteristics above the mean line and all
the undersirable ones towards the bottom of the graphic. This design
provides an easily understood visual of each leader's ability.

To determine what your score means turn to the Assessment Chart.

7
6
5
4
3
2
1

Supercharged. This score characterizes a take charge person; one with greater than average potential. High energy persons of this calibre are successful in both intrepreneurial and entrepreneurial activities, especially the latter. They are more likely to direct their total energies in the formulation of a small business rather than support the missions of traditional corporate or military organizations.

Autonomous. Persons scoring at this level tend to expend minimal energy on salaried, career limiting jobs. A large portion of their creative effort is directed toward the development and management of personal sideline businesses. They eventually succeed in turning part-time sidelines into full-time entrepreneurial occupations.

Very high leadership ability score. A person falling in this range will prove to be an excellent organizational investment. This score indicates that s/he will experience above average success in the pursuance of a military or corporate career.

Excellent for corporate and/or military career. This is a high leadership ability score. Persons scoring in this range will succeed in attaining leadership positions at both the mid and lower senior levels of most organizations.

Good leadership ability. Individuals will exert their energies to learn and contribute to an organizations overall goals. They can be mission oriented, therefore prime candidates for junior grade positions. To maintain their energies organizations need to incorporate reinforcement and motivation theories in dealing with such people. People scoring at this range seek organizational training and educational opportunity.

Not good. Does not take advantage of advancement or progress. This score indicates little regard for principles or ultimate consequences. At this level one does not grasp opportunities for an organization. Undesirable characteristics.

No leadership ability.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

AIR (American Institute for Research). Situational problems for leadership training. Part IV-Categorized Bibliography of Research Literature. Washington, D.C.: American Institute for Research, 1961 (Mimeo).

Alban, B.T., & Seashore, E. W. Women in Authority: An Experienced View. J. Appl. Behav Sci., 1978, 14, 21.

Alcorn, R.S. Leadership and Stability in Mid-Nineteenth Century America: A Case Study of an Illinois Town. J. Amer. His., 1974, 61, 685-702.

Alford, R. R., & Scoble, H. M. Community Leadership, Education, and Political Behavior. Amer. Social Rev., 1968, 33, 259-272.

Allen, W. R. A Comparative Analysis of Black and White Leadership in a Naturalistic Setting. Dissertation Abstr. Internat., 1975, 36, 2516.

Allen, W. R. Black and White Leaders and Subordinates: Leader Choice and Ratings, Aspirations and Expectancy of Success. In D. Frederick & J. Guiltinan (Eds.), New Challenges for the Decision Sciences. Amherst, Mass.: Northeast Region of the American Institute for Decision Sciences, 1975.

Allen, W. R., & Ruhe, J. A. Verbal Behavior by Black and White Leaders of Biracial Groups in Two Different Environments. J. Appl. Psychol., 1976, 61, 441-445.

Anderson, D.R., Leadership effectiveness in education as related to congruence between human behavior types and leadership styles. Dissertation Abstr. Internat., 1974, 34, 6887.

Anderson, L. R., Leader behavior, member attitudes, and task performance of intercultural discussion groups. J. Soc. Psychol., 1966, 69, 305-319.

Andrews, L. C., Leadership and Military Training. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1918.

Argyris, C., Increasing Leadership Effectiveness. New York: Wiley, 1976.

Ayer, J. G., Effects of success and failure of interpersonal and task performance upon leader perception and behavior. Urbana: University of Illinois, Group Effectiveness Research Laboratory, Technical Report No. 26, 1968.

Baldwin, J. , Glazar, N., Hook, S., Myrdal, G., & Podhoretz, N.
Liberalism and the Negro: A Round-Table Discussion. In B. E. Segal
(Ed.,), Racial and Ethnic Relations. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell,
1966.

Bartol, K. M. Male and Female Leaders in Small Groups. East Lansing:
Michigan State University Press, 1973.

Bartol, K. M. Male vs. Female Leaders: The effect of leader needs
for dominance on follow satisfaction. Acad. Mgmt. J., 1974, 17,
225-233.

Bartol, K. M. The effect of male versus female leaders on follower
satisfaction and performance. J. Bus. Research, 1975, 3, 33-42.

Martol, K. M., Evans, C. L., & Stitch, M.T. Black vs. white leaders:
a comparative review of the literature. Acad. Mgmt. Rev., 1978, 3,
293-304.

Bass, B. M. Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behavior. New
York: Harper, 1960.

Bass, B. M. Reactions to Twelve Angry Men as a measure of sensitivity
training. J. Appl. Psychol., 1962, 46, 120-124.

Bass, B. M., & Barret, G. V. People, Work and Organizations: An
Introduction to Industrial Organizational Psychology. Boston:
Allyn & Bacon, 1981.

Bass, B. M. Flint, A. W., & Pryer, M. W. Group effectiveness as a
function of attempted and successful leadership. Baton Rouge:
Louisiana State University, 1957 (Mimeo).

Bass, B. M., Flint, A. W., & Pryer, M. W. Effects of status-esteem
conflict on subsequent behavior in groups. Baton Rouge: Louisiana
State University, 1957 (Mimeo).

Bass, B. M. Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory
and Research. New York: Free Press, 1981.

Bayer, A. E., & Boruch, R. F. The black student in American colleges.
Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, Research Report
No. 4 (2), 1969.

Bellingrath, G. C. _Qualities Associated with Leadership in Extra-curricular Activities of the High School_. New York: Teachers College Contribution to Education, 1930.

Bird, C. _Social Psychology_. New York: Appleton-Century, 1940.

Blake. R. R. & Mouton, J. S., _The Managerial Grid_. Houston: Gulf, 1964.

Bons, P. M., & Fiedler, F. E. Changes in organizational leadership and the behavior of relationship-and task-motivated leaders. _Admin Sci. Quar._, 1976, 21, 433-472.

Browne, C. G., & Cohn, T. S. _The Study of Leadership_. Danville, Ill.: Interstate, 1958.

Bryson, J., & Kelly, G. A political perspective on leadership emergency, stability, and change in organizational networks. _Acad. Mgmt. Rev._, 1978, 3, 712-723.

Burns, J. M. _Leadership_. New York: Harper & Row, 1978.

Buttgereit, H. Fuhrergestalten in der Schulklass._Z.f. angew_. Pschol., 1932, 43, 369-413.

Campbell, D. T. & McCormack, T. H. Military experience and attitudes toward authority. _Amer. J. Social._, 1957, 62, 482-490.

Carlson, H. B., & Harrell, W. An analysis of Life's "Ablest Congressman." _Poll. J. Soc. Psychol_. 1942, 15, 153-158.

Chapman, J. B. Comparisons of male and female leadership style. _Acad. Mgmt. J._, 1975, 18, 645-650.

Chowdhry, K., & Pal, A. D. Production planning and organizational morale. In J. A. Rubenstein & C. J. Haberstroh (Eds.). _Some Theories of Organization_. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey, 1960.

Christie, R., & Geis, F. L. (Eds.). _Studies in Machiavellianism_. New York: Academic Press, 1970.

Cleeton, G. V., & Mason, C. W. _Executive Ability - Its Discovery and Development_. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1934.

Cox, C. M. _The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses_. Standard: Stanford University Press, 1926.

Csoka, L. S. A relationship between leader intelligence and leader rated effectiveness. J. Appl. Psychol., 1974, 59, 43-47.

Csoka, L. S., & Bons, P. M. Manipulating the situation to fit the leader's style - two validation studies of LEADER MATCH. J. Appl. Psychol., 1978, 63, 295-300.

Davis, T. R. V., & Luthans, F. Leadership reexamined: a behavioral approach. Acad. Mgmt. Rev., 1979, 4, 237-248.

Day, D. R., & Stogdill, R. M. Leader behavior of male and female supervisors: a comparative study. Personnel Psychol., 1972, 25, 353-360.

Dittes, J. E. Attractiveness of group as function of self-esteem and acceptance by group. J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 1959, 59, 77-82.

Drake, R. M. A study of leadership. Character & Pers., 1944, 12, 285-289.

Dunkerley, M. D. A statistical study of leadership among college women. Stud. Psychol. Psychiat., 1940, 4, 1-64.

Dyson, J. W., Godwin, P. H., & Hazelwood, L. A. Group composition, leadership orientation, and decisional outcomes. Sm. Grp. Behav., 1976, 7, 114-128.

Evan, W. M., & Zelditch, M. A laboratory experiment on bureaucratic authority. Amer. Social. Rev., 1961, 26, 883-893.

Farley, R., & Hermalin, A. Family stability: a comparison of trends between blacks and whites. Amer. Social Rev., 1971, 36, 1-17.

Fauquier, W., & Gilchrist, J. Some aspects of leadership in an institution. Child Develop., 1942, 13, 55-64.

Fenelon, J. R., & Megargee, E. I. The influence of race on the manifestation of leadership. Exp. Publ. System, Amer. Psychol. Assn., 1971, 10, No. 380-12.

Fichter, J. H. Career preparation and expectations of negro college seniors. J. Negro Educ., 1966, 35, 322-335.

Field, R. H. G. A critique of the Vroom-Yetton contingency model of leadership behavior. Acad. Mgmt. Rev., 1979, 4, 249-257.

Flemming, E.G. A factor analysis of the personality of high school leaders. _J. Appl. Psychol._, 1935, 19, 596-605.

Fox, A. M. Temperament and attitude correlates of leadership behavior. _Educ. Psychol. Measmt._, 1967, 27, 1166-1168.

Ghiselli, E. E. The validity of management traits in relation to occupational level. _Personnel Psychol._, 1963, 16, 109-113.

Granick, D. _The European Executive._ New York: Doubleday, 1962.

Gustafson, D. P. The effect of commitment to the task on role differentiation in small unstructured groups. _Acad. Mgmt. J._, 1968, 11, 457-458.

Hamel, W. A. Japan's quest for the management grail. Academy of Management's 43d Annual National Meeting, Dallas, 1983.

Harville, D. L. Early identification of potential leaders. _J. Coll. Student Personnel_, 1969, 10, 333-335.

Heller, F. A. _Managerial Decision Making._ London: Human Resources Center, Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, 1969.

Homans, G. C. _The human group._ New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1950.

Jenkins, W. O. A review of leadership studies with particular reference to military problems. _Psychol. Bull._, 1947, 44, 54-79.

Jennings, E. E. An anatomy of leadership: princes, heroes, and supermen. New York: Harper, 1960.

Johns, G. Task moderators of the relationship between leadership style and subordinate responses. _Acad. Mgmt. J._, 1978, 21, 319-325.

Kavanagh, M. J. Leadership behavior as a function of subordinate competence and task complexity. _Admin. Sci. Quar._, 1972, 17, 591-600.

Kipnis, D. Mobility expectations and attitudes toward industrial structure. _Hum. Relat._, 1964, 17, 57-72.

Klaus, R., & Bass, B. M. _Impact of Communication._ New York: Academic Press, 1981.

Kohs, S. C., & Irle, K. W. Prophesying Army Promotion. _J. Appl. Psychol._, 1920, 3, 73-87.

Koontz, H., & O'Donnel, C. Principles of Management. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.

Lauterback, A. Management aims and development needs in Latin America. Bus. His. Rev., 1963, 39, 557-572, 577-588.

Lehman, H. C. Age and Achievement. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1953.

Liebow, E. Tally's Corner. Boston: Little, Brown, 1967.

Likert, R. Management styles and the human component. Mgmt. Rev., 1977, 66, 23-28, 43-45.

Likert, R. Past and future perspectives on system 4. Preceedings of the Academy of Management, 1977.

Lindzey, G., & Aronson, E. Handbook of Social Psychology. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

Lindzey, G., & Kalnis, D. Theoretic apperception test: some evidence bearing on the "hero assumption." J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 1958, 57, 76-83.

McCann, E. C. An aspect of management philosophy inthe United States and Latin America. J. Acad. Mgmt., 1964, 7, 149-152.

McClellan, D. C. Longitudinal trends in the relation of thought to action. J. Consult. Psychol., 1966, 30, 479-483.

McClelland, D. C., & Winter, D. G. Motivating Economic Achievement. New York: Free Press, 1969.

McCuen, T. L. Leadership and Intelligence, 1929, 89-95.

Machiavolli, N. The Prince. New York: Modern Library, 1940.

Mann, R. D. A review of the relationship between personality and performance in small groups. Psychol. Bull., 1959, 56, 241-270.

Mant, A. The rise and fall of the British manager. London: The MacMillan Press, 1977.

Margiotta, F. D. A military elite in transition: Air Force leaders in the 1980's. Armed For. Society, 1976, 2, 155-184.

Marsh, R. M., & Mannari, H. Lifetime commitment in Japan: roles, norms, and values. Amer. J. Sociol., 1971, 76, 795-812.

Matteson, M. T. Attitudes toward women as managers: sex or role differences? Psychol. Rep., 1976, 39, 166.

Matthews, D. R. The Social Background of Political Decision-Makers. New York: Random House, 1954.

Merton, R. K. The social nature of leadership. Amer. J. Nvrs., 1969, 69, 2614-2618.

Merton, R. K., & Kitt, A. S. Contributions to the theory of reference group behavior. In R. K. Merton & P. F. Lazarfeld (Eds.), Studies in the Scope and Method of "The American Soldier." New York: Free Press, 1950.

Mitchell, V. F. Need satisfactions of military commanders and staff. J. Appl. Psychol., 1970, 54, 282-287.

Moore, J. V., & Smith, R. G. Some aspects of noncommissioned officer leadership. Personnel Psychology, 1953, 6, 427-443.

Moore, L. H. Leadership traits of college women. Social. Soc. Res., 1935, 20, 136-139.

Mueller, R. K. Leader-edge leadership. In Human Systems Management, 1980, 1, 17-27.

Nebeker, D. M., & Mitchell, T. R. Leader behavior. an expectancy theory approach. Org. Behav. Hum. Perform., 1974, 11, 355-367.

Nelson, P. D. An evaluation of a popular leader. USN MNPRU Rep. No. 63-9, 1963.

Nelson, P. D. Similarities and differences among leaders and followers. J. Soc. Psychol., 1964, 48, 106-109.

Nelson, P. D., & Berry, N. H. Dimensions of peer ratings in a military setting. USN MNPRU Rep. No. 66-1, 1966.

Newcomer, M. The Big Business Executive: The Factors That Made Him, 1900-1950. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955.

Osborn, R. N., & Vicars, W. M. Sex stereotypes: an artifact in leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction analysis? Acad. Mgmt. J., 1976, 19, 439-449.

Partridge, E. De A. Leadership among adolescent boys. Teach.
Coll. Contrib. Educ., 1934, No. 608.

Patchen, M. Participation, Achievement, and Involvement on the
Job. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Penner, D. D., Malone, D. M., Coughlin, T. M., & Herz, J. A. Satisfaction
with U. S. Army leadership. U. S. Army War College, Leadership
Monograph Series, No. 2, 1973.

Pinkney, A. P. Black Americans. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-
Hall, 1969.

Psychological Services. Bibliography on Military Leadership: Annotations
of Selected Studies from Scientific, Technical, and Related Publications.
Maxwell Air Force Base, Ala.: Air Research & Development Command,
Human Resources Research Institute, 1953.

Raven, B. H., & Eachus, H. T. Cooperation and competition in means -
interdependent triads. J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 1963, 67, 307-316.

Riedesel, P. L., Bales reconsidered: a critical analysis of popularity
and leadership differentiation. Sociometry, 1974, 37, 557-564.

Rittenhouse, C. H. A Follow-up Study of NCO Leaders School Graduates.
Washington, D. C.: Human Resources Research Office, 1968.

Rosen, B., & Jerdee, T. H. Influence of subordinate characteristics
on trust and use of participative decisionstrategies in a management
simulation. J. Appl. Psychol., 1977, 62, 628-631.

Rubenowitz, G. J. Job-oriented and person-oriented leadership. Personnel
Psychol., 1962, 15, 387-396.

Sarachek, B. Greek concepts of leadership. Acad. Mgmt. J., 1968, 11, 39-48.

Sattler, J.M. Racial "experimenter effects" in experimentation, testing,
interviewing, and psychotherapy. Psychol. Bull., 1970, 73, 137-160.

Schein, V. E. Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite
management characteristics among female managers. J. Appl. Psychol.,
1975, 60, 340-344.

Schenk, C. Leadership: Infantry J., 1928, 33, 111-122.

Scientific American. The big business executive: 1964. Scientific
American, 1965.

Shull, F., & Anthony, W. P. Do black and white supervisory problem
  solving styles differ? Personnel Psychol., 1978, 31, 761-782.

Smith, C. G., & Tannenbaum, A. S. Organizational control structure:
   a comparative analysis. Hum. Relat., 1963, 16, 299-316.

Smith, P. B. Differentiation between sociometric rankings. Hum. Relat.,
  1963, 16, 335-350.

Stogdill, R. M. Personal factors associated with leadership: a survey
  of the literature. J. Psychol., 1948, 25, 35-71.

Stogdill, R. M. Studies in naval leadership, PartII. In H. Guetzkow.
  Groups, Leadership and Men. Pittsburgh: Carnegie Press, 1951.

Stogdill, R. M. Intragroup - intergroup theory and research.
  In M. Sherif (Ed.), Intergroup Relations and Leadership. New York:
  Wiley, 1962.

Stogdill, R. M. Leadership: A Survey of the Literature.I. Selected
  Topics. Greensboro, N.C.: Smith Richardson Foundation, 1968.

Thibaut, J. W., & Faucheux, C. The development of contractual norms
  in a beginning situation under two tupes of stress. J. Exp. Soc. Psychol.,
  1965, k, 89-102.

Triandis, H. (Ed.). Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology. Boston:
  Allyn & Bacon, 1980.

 Tryon, C. M. Evaluations of adolescent personality by adolescents.
  Monogr. Soc. Res. Child Develop., 1939, 4, No. 4

Vinson, E., & Mitchell, T. R. Differences in motivational predictors
  and criterion measures for black and white employees. Proceedings
  of the Academy of Management, 1975.

Vroom, V. H. Decision making and the leadership process. J. Contem. Bus.,
  1974, 3, 47-64.

Vroom, V. H. Can leaders learn to lead? Org. Dynam., 1974, 4, 17-28.

Watson, J. G., & Barone, S. The self-concept, personal values, and
  motivational orientations of black and white managers. Acad. Mgmt. J.,
  1976, 19, 36-48.

Wearing, A. J., & Bishop, D. W. The Fiedler Contingency Model and the functioning of military squads. _Acad. Mgmt. J._, 1974, 17, 450-459.

Webb, V. Character and intelligence. _Brit. J. Psychol. Monogr._, 1915, No. 20.

Weed, S. E., Mitchell, T. R., & Moffitt, W. Leadership style, subordinate personality, and task type as predictors of performance and satisfaction with supervision. _J. Appl. Psychol._, 1976, 61, 58-66.

Weissenberg, P. A. A comparison of the life goals of Austrian, German-Swiss, and West German (FRG) managers. _Economics of Societies_, 1979, 13, 683-693.

West, N. _Leadership with a Feminine Cast_. San Francisco: R & E Research Associates, 1978.

Wherry, R. J. Factor analysis of Officer Qualifications Form QCL-2B. Columbus: Ohio State University Research Foundation (Mimeo).

Wherry, R. J., & Olivero, J. (Eds.). _The Ohio State University Computer Programs for Psychology_. Columbus: Ohio State University, Department of Psychology, 1971.

White, H. C. Identifying the true leader in industrial management. _Indus. Mgmt._, 1972, 14, 1-7.

White, M. C., DeSanctis, G. & Grino, M. D. Achievement, self confidence, personality traits and leadership ability: a review of the literature on sex differences. _Psychol. Rep._, 1981, 48, 547-569.

Wilkinson, R. _Gentlemanly Power_. London: Oxford University Press, 1964.

Williams, E. An analysis of selected work duties and performance of the more effective versus the less effective manager. Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1968.

Williams, S. B., & Leavitt, H. J. Group opinion as a predictor of military leadership. _J. Consult. Psychol._, 1947, 11, 283-291.

Willmorth, N. E., Taylor, E. L., Lindelien, W. B., & Ruch, F. L. A factor analysis of rating scale variables used as criteria of military leadership. _USAF Personnel Train. Res. Cent. Res. Rep._, 1957, No. 57-154.

Winter, D. G. Navy Leadership and ManagementCompetencies: Convergence Among Tests, Interviews, and Performance Ratings. Boston: McBer & Co., 1978.

Wittig, M. A. Sex differences in intellectual functioning: how much of a difference do genes make? Sex Roles,1976, 2, 63-74.

Zeleny, L. D. Characteristics of group leaders. Sociol. Soc. Res., 1939, 24, 140-149.

DATE
ILME